DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 477 779 HE 035 976

TITLE Report of the Research and Policy Analysis Subcommittee. The University System of Georgia's Task Force on Enhancing Access for African-American Males.

INSTITUTION Georgia Univ. System, Atlanta. Board of Regents.

PUB DATE 2002-00-00

NOTE 21p.; For related reports, see HE 035 974-978.

AVAILABLE FROM For full text: http://www.usg.edu/aami/Research_and_Policy_Analysis_Subcommittee.pdf.

PUB TYPE Reports - Research (143)

EDRS PRICE EDRS Price MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

DESCRIPTORS *Access to Education; *Blacks; College Preparation; *Educational Attainment; Enrollment; *Higher Education; *Males; Outcomes of Education

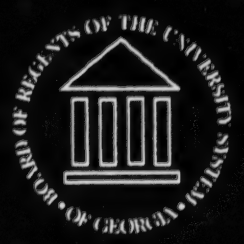
IDENTIFIERS *African Americans; *University System of Georgia

ABSTRACT

This report seeks to lay the foundation for future research in Georgia on educational outcomes for African American males, particularly as related to access to the University System of Georgia. After a review of general barriers to college enrollment and completion for African American males, the report outlines baseline data about the participation of African American males in higher education in Georgia. This information should help set the agenda for next steps to take in research at the system and institutional levels, and it should drive discussion of the policies that impact college access for African American males. The population of Georgia grew by 26% between 1990 and 2000, and the state's African American population increased by 35% in this period. In the age group generally enrolled in college, between 18 and 24, there were 130,000 black males and 138,000 black females in Georgia. The enrollment of black males in high school in Georgia declines each year; by 12th grade, the black male segment of the high school population is only 47% of what it was in grade 9. Data show that African American males, when compared to other race and gender cohorts, are not as well prepared to enter college. In the class of 1997, African American males entered college at the rate of 22%, compared to 29% of African American females, 50% of white females, and 46% of white males. Few African American males enroll at delayed time points; few are "nontraditional" students. African American males are retained in college at 69% after 1 year, while white males are retained at 73%. Considering the significant differences in preparation for college, the differences in retention rates are small. The number of bachelor's degrees awarded African American males in Georgia has increased, although not as much as for women, but enrollments in graduate and professional schools remained low. Of concern also are statistics about the involvement of African American males in the correctional system. Some suggestions are offered for actions the University System of Georgia can take to improve access and retention for African American males. (Contains 11 charts and 17 footnotes.) (SLD)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made from the original document.

ED 477 779



The University System of Georgia's
Task Force on Enhancing Access for African-American Males

REPORT

of the Research and Policy Analysis Subcommittee

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
S.R. Portch
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

Dr. Cathie Mayes Hudson, Chair
Dr. Carlton Brown, Vice Chair
Dr. Jacquelyn Belcher
Regent William Cleveland, M.D.
Mr. William Cox
Dr. Arthur Dunning
Mr. Darryl Holloman
Dr. Joshua Murfree
Dr. Michael Nettles
Ms. Shelley Nickel
Dr. Felita Williams

HE035976

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

African-American Male Access to the University System of Georgia: Report of the Subcommittee on Research & Policy Analysis

Introduction

In recent years, there has been increasing concern about access of African-American males to higher education and the impacts on society of the lack of access. Nationally, African-American males complete college at much lower rates than their peers. While there has been research on the reasons for the disparity at the national level, there has been little research on African-American male access in Georgia.

This report seeks to lay the foundation for future research in Georgia on educational outcomes for African-American males, particularly related to access to the University System of Georgia. While there is much that remains unexplored in Georgia, we know enough to begin discussion of how educational policies and practices impact African-American males.

Definitions of College Access

In 1998, the National Postsecondary Education Cooperative (NPEC) and the American Council on Education (ACE) convened a panel on access in postsecondary education.[1] They focused on how access was conceptualized, whether the definition should be broadened, and how the definition should drive research, all in terms of how best to inform postsecondary education policy. Panel participants agreed that America appears to be reaching the goal of increased access to postsecondary education. There is a higher college participation rate than in the past and higher educational attainment rates, with more students enrolled in higher education and more students graduating. "But scratch beneath the surface, and the news about access and opportunity in American higher education is certainly more complex and a lot less hopeful. For the far too many students who fail to complete their college education, higher education's 'open door' has become little more than a revolving door."[2] Student aspirations, motivation, and talents partially determine student success. However, public policies constrain individual decisions, in delimiting who is admissible to college, who enrolls in college, and who completes college.

Future research on how to improve access for African-American males should explore identified barriers to access. The following discussion draws heavily on the discussion in the NPEC/ACE report, and readers should refer to that report for additional information. We have attempted to link the national issues to what is known about access for African-American males in Georgia.

---

[1] U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Reconceptualizing Access in Postsecondary Education: Report of the Policy Panel on Access*, NCES 98-283, prepared by Sandra Ruppert, Zelema Harris, Arthur Hauptman, Michael Nettles, Laura Perna, Catherine Millett, Laura Rendon, Vincent Tinto, Sylvia Hurtado, and Karen Inkelas for the Council of the National Postsecondary Education Cooperative, Subcommittee on the Policy Panel on Access, Washington, DC: 1998.

[2] Ibid, page 1. Sandra Ruppert, "Reconceptualizing Access."

Table 1. **Ways of Conceptualizing College and University Access**	
Dimensions of Access	**Public Policy Issues**
Ability to afford college	Financial aid, loan debt
Preparation for college	Curriculum tracking policies; admissions policies
History and demographics	Affirmative action; HBCUs
College choice	Sectors of enrollment of African-American males; HBCUs and non-HBCUs
Motivation and aspiration	Individual student characteristics impacted by policy
Admission vs. participation and graduation	Shifting policy focus from access to completion

The NPEC/ACE study provides a framework for research on barriers to access in relation to public policy in the categories summarized in Table 1 and reviewed below.[3] In each case, it is important to think about public policies that affect access and how research could inform policy changes, especially as they relate to Georgia.

Financial barriers to access: Tuition, family income, and student aid. Michael Nettles, Laura Perna, and Catherine Millett review the implications of federal financial aid policies on access to higher education in the *Report of the Policy Panel on Access* cited above. Although federal financial aid policies have been enhanced to provide additional funding for higher education, it is not clear if financial obstacles have been removed.

- There is little research on Georgia and the University System on financial aid by race and gender. The impact of HOPE on African-American male access should be investigated. Loan debt varies by race and gender, and the effects of loan debt should be explored.

Academic barriers to access. Lack of preparation for college is a significant barrier to success. Nationally, however, both the growth of the community college sector and the provision of remedial studies mediated those barriers.

- What types of academic barriers exist in Georgia?
- What is known about how students choose or are tracked into the College Preparatory (CP) diploma track in Georgia?
- Where do African-American students enroll in college in Georgia?

Race and gender barriers to access. In part because some colleges embraced affirmative action policies in admissions, students from underrepresented minorities were provided increased access. However, the pending Supreme Court decision on admission weights will determine whether such access will continue.

---

[3] See Ruppert, ibid, for a full discussion of these barriers.

- In Georgia, three Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) are a legacy of the period of segregation. The role of the HBCUs in providing access to African-American males should be explored.

Choice barriers to access. Through the 1980s, minorities and women have tended to be underrepresented at more prestigious universities, termed "educational segregation" by Sandra Ruppert and others. "The rule of thumb . . . was that the less prestigious the institution, the greater the presence of minorities and women."[4] African-American students remain underrepresented at the most competitive institutions. The issue is how to increase the numbers of African-American students who are qualified to compete at institutions with highly selective admissions criteria.

- Research is needed on where African-American males choose to attend college and where they enroll in college in Georgia.

- USG institutions need to assess campus climate and how it is perceived by African-American males. Each institution should explore reasons why African-American males leave without a degree.

Motivational barriers to access. Many African-American males do not believe college is possible. The effects of low motivation and aspiration for college likely interact with societal and structural problems that can be affected by public policy. For example, poorly secondary funded schools may not encourage aspiration for college. However, for some students high motivation is the only way to overcome barriers to college.

- The research report prepared by Matlock Advertising and Public Relations and Paul A. Warner and Associates focused on motivational barriers to access and the perceptions of college by African-American males and others.

Barriers to college completion. Vincent Tinto advocates that access should be reconceptualized from the possibility of entering college to participation in college and completion of a degree. "Stripped of its implications for participation and persistence, the concept of access is . . . no longer a useful policy tool."[5] Using data from Clifford Adelman's longitudinal analyses of national samples of students (from the National Longitudinal Study-1972 and High School and Beyond), Tinto states that access for African-American students has increased steadily for the last twenty years. During the same period bachelor's degree completion among African-American students declined from 35 percent to 25 percent. The focus of research and policy reform should shift from one of improving access to increasing completion rates.

---

[4] Judith Eaton, "The Evolution of Access Policy: 1965-1990" in *American Higher Education: Purposes, Problems, and Public Perceptions*, 1992; quoted in Ruppert, 1998.

[5] Vincent Tinto, "From Access to Participation" in *Reconceptualizing Access in Postsecondary Education: Report of the Policy Panel on Access*, NCES 98-283, 1998.

- The System and USG institutions report on graduation rates of African-American students. In addition, the System should report graduation rates by race/ethnicity and gender.

The Effects of Race, Gender, and Socio-Economic Status on Access

Much has been written in recent years about the declining proportion of male students in college. Using NCES data, Thomas Mortensen has tracked the proportion of bachelor's degrees awarded to males from 1870, when few men and many fewer women attended college, to 1996.[6] During that period, the proportion of bachelor's degrees awarded to men dropped from 85.3 percent to 44.9 percent. Mortensen predicts that if current trends were to continue there would be no bachelor's degrees awarded to men in 2163. He highlights growing gender gaps in NAEP scores, in high school graduation rates, college participation rates, and completion rates. The effects of lower male college completion rates include economic effects, such as lower wages and lifetime net worth of individuals, and societal effects, such as one pointed out by Mortensen. "If all the women college graduates choose to marry after college, two out of three of those in college today will not find a male college graduate to marry."

Mortensen's observations reveal the real progress of women in education, especially since 1950, in college completion and in fields once dominated by men.[7] However, tracking the percentage of men in college, by definition, polarizes the question: women's gains become men's losses. While the changing percentage is of concern, both genders can obviously have gains in access and college completion.

The effects of gender are consistent across all race and ethnic groups, but they are more pronounced for African-American and Hispanic males. A report by the American Council on Education in 2000, *Gender Equity in Higher Education: Are Male Students at a Disadvantage?*, examined the effects of gender and race on higher education access.[8] ACE disaggregated key indicators on achievement, high school graduation, college enrollment, and college completion by gender, but also by age, race, ethnicity, and socio-economic status.[9] The ACE study concludes that:

> "There is not a generalized educational crisis among men, but there are pockets of real problems. In particular, African-American, Hispanic, and low-income males

---

[6] Thomas G. Mortensen, "Where Are the Guys?" *Postsecondary Education Opportunity*, October 1998. Also see the September 1995 issue of *Postsecondary Education Opportunity*.

[7] For more information on educational gains of females, see U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Trends in Educational Equity of Girls and Women*, NCES 2000-030, by Yupin Bae, Susan Choy, Claire Geddes, Jennifer Sable, and Thomas Snyder. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, March 2000.

[8] Jacqueline E. King, American Council on Education. *Gender Equity in Higher Education: Are Male Students at a Disadvantage?* Washington, DC: 2000. Also see an earlier report on the relationships between race/ethnicity and how students pay for college. Jacqueline E. King, American Council on Education. *Money Matters: The Impact of Race/Ethnicity and Gender on How Students Pay for College*. Washington, DC: 1999.

[9] King, 2000; Page 2.

lag behind their female peers in terms of educational attainment and are far outpaced by white, Asian-American, and middle-class men and women."

ACE notes that student age is important in understanding the gender distribution of college students. Women outnumber men at every age group, but younger undergraduates (24 or younger) are 46 percent male, compared to 42 percent of those 25 to 39, and 34 percent of those 40 and above. Many of the older women students were of traditional college-going age at a time when fewer women attended college, and they now need college to improve their status in the workforce. The percentage of females among older students is especially pronounced among African-American and Hispanic students.

The ACE study focuses on one other important variable: socio-economic status (SES). The gender gap varies considerably by SES, with one major exception. Using data from the National Postsecondary Student Aid Study, ACE shows that the gap between younger (24 and below) males and females in college is generally large for low-income students, but the gender gap decreases dramatically or is reversed as income increases, except for African-American undergraduates. At lower income levels (less than $30,000), women outnumber men in every race/ethnic group. For example, 54 percent of low-income younger white students are female, compared to 68 percent of African-American students and 57 percent of Hispanic students. At the upper income level ($70,000 or more), 48 percent of younger white students are female, compared to 59 percent of African-American students, and 50 percent of Hispanic students. The trend for African-American students at the upper income levels is in the same direction, but the effects are not as pronounced. The ACE report concludes that "the gender gap is dwarfed by the educational chasms related to race/ethnicity and social class . . . . Low-income and minority men have a particularly difficult time excelling academically, but their female counterparts continue to lag behind whites as well."[10]

What are the trends in the University System of Georgia for African-American males? This report provides baseline descriptive data on the educational pipeline in Georgia for preparation for college, high school completion, college enrollment, retention, and completion by race and gender. It also lays a foundation for future research on African-American male access in the USG.

The Educational Pipeline in Georgia for African-American Males

In the sections below, we provide baseline descriptive information on African-American males in the education pipeline in Georgia. This information should help set the agenda for next steps to take in research at the System and institutional levels, and it should drive discussion of the policies that impact college access for African-American males.

Georgia Population and Demographics

In the 2000 census, the Georgia population was about 8.2 million, with about 2.3 million African-Americans. There were 1,107,945 black males and 1,241,597 black females. Georgia grew by 26 percent between 1990 and 2000, and the African-American population grew by 35

[10] King, page 17.

percent during that same time period.[11] In the age group that is generally enrolled in college, between 18 and 24, there were 130,000 black males and 138,000 black females in Georgia.

High School Completion

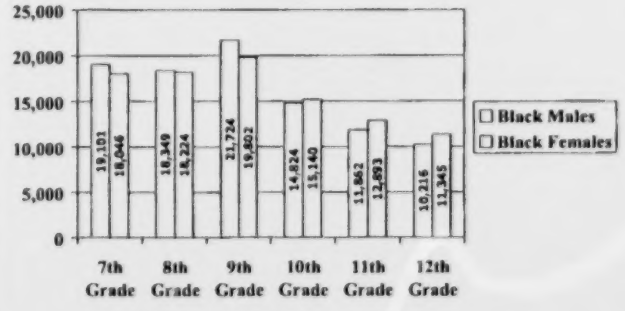
Chart 1 provides the number of African-American students enrolled in public schools in Georgia in 1993 from 7th through 12th grade.[12] The number of students in grades K-6 (not shown) remained fairly stable over time. However, in 9th grade, the number of African-American males increased by 18.4 percent. Although there are no additional data to provide context, it is assumed that the increase compared to the size of the 8th grade class represents the relative increase in the number of students who are retained at the 9th grade level.

Students who are on track generally reach age 16 in 10th grade. At that age, students may for the first time drop out of school legally. For the 1993 cohort of 10th graders, the number of African-American males declines by 31.8 percent (6,900 students) relative to their 9th grade counterparts. From that point forward the number of African-American males is smaller each year. By 12th grade, the number is 10,216, and it represents only 47 percent of the size of the 9th grade class. Even given that the number of 9th graders may be inflated relative to the number who should have been in 9th grade if students were on track, the decline is striking.

Chart 1.

Georgia Public Schools

Fall 1993 Headcount Enrollment, 7th—12th Grades



Source: Georgia Department of Education, September 22, 1995; October count of students.

Chart 2 provides information on the aggregate graduation rate from public high schools in Georgia. This rate divides the number of students who graduate from high school by the number

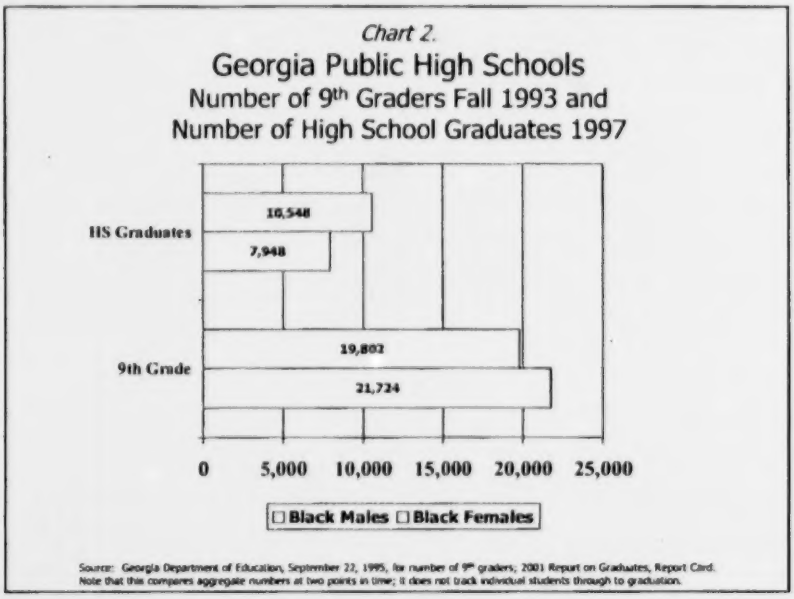
[11] U.S. Census, 2002.

[12] Note that this chart compares separate cohorts of students at one period of time. There are no available longitudinal data that could be used to track individual students or cohorts of students over time in Georgia.

8 BEST COPY AVAILABLE

in 9th grade four years earlier.[13] For the 1993 cohort, 37 percent of black males had graduated from high school compared to 53 percent of black females. Overall, the graduation rate for public high schools was 59 percent (58,996 diplomas in 1997 divided by 100,832 9th graders in 1993). The high school graduation rate for African-American males in Georgia should be of significant concern to researchers and to policy makers. Except for anecdotal evidence, we know little about the reasons for the low completion rate.

Chart 2.



Curricular Tracking

In Georgia, students are currently tracked into two types of curriculum leading to different diploma seals: college preparatory (CP) curriculum and technical career preparatory curriculum, sometimes called the "vocational track." Students may take courses to satisfy both diploma seals. There are several other ways to complete high school. Special education students can earn a special education diploma. Although phased out in 1997, some students still earn a "general" diploma. Graduates in the above tracks earn diplomas. In addition, some students graduate from high school but do not earn a diploma. Instead these students are given a certificate of performance. In some cases, these students have gotten to age 21 without graduating (and at that age, the state no longer funds high school education); in other cases, the students have not passed the high school graduation test. Table 2 provides the number of African-American male public high school graduates by type of diploma and completion from 1997 to 2001.

---

[13] There is no publicly available high school graduation rate that tracks individual students through from 9th grade to high school graduation. The aggregate rate is commonly used in Georgia, but it is subject to error in the numerator. There is no way to determine if the high school graduates in 1997 are the same students as those who were in 9th grade four years earlier. Students who moved into the state from 10th grade on are represented in the numerator but not in the denominator of the rate. For this reason, the rate may overrepresent the true high school graduation rate in Georgia.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

The number of African-American male public high school graduates with diplomas has increased by 11.8 percent over the five-year period. In addition, the number of African-American males who have earned the College Preparatory (CP) diploma has increased by 21.8 percent, with a peak in 2000, and the number who earned the CP diploma plus the vocational diploma has more than doubled. During the phase-out of "general" diplomas, the number awarded to African-American males dropped from 2,531 to 102, and the 102 granted in 2001 represented 21.3 percent of all general diplomas granted. While the growth of the number of diplomas and the number of African-American males with the CP diploma is noteworthy, the number of African-American male students with a certificate of performance also more than doubled during the period.

Table 2.

Number of African-American Males by Type of Diploma

Georgia Public High School Graduates, 1997-2001

Academic Year	Number of African-American Males by Type of Endorsement on Diploma				Number of Diplomas to African-American Males*	Number of African-American Graduates, No Diploma, With Certificate of Performance
	CP Diploma	CP + Vocational Diploma	Vocational Diploma	Special Education Diplomas		
1997	3,278	505	1,634	586	8,534	516
1998	3,503	711	1,909	667	8,545	979
1999	3,850	950	2,852	697	8,775	1,086
2000	4,228	1,193	3,147	767	9,433	809
2001	3,995	1,162	3,371	919	9,549	1,101

Source: Georgia Department of Education, 2002. *The total includes "general" diplomas, not shown separately.

A slightly different picture of curricular tracking emerges when one examines the percentage of each type of diploma awarded to African-American males, shown in Table 3. For example, in 2001 African-American males represented 19.2 percent of all students enrolled in Georgia's Pre-K through 12 schools, but they represented 14.7 percent of all graduates and 11.7 percent of those with the CP diploma endorsement. In most categories, the percentages are fairly stable over time. A large percentage of special education diplomas is earned by African-American males, 37.2 percent of all such diplomas in 2001. African-American males also receive a disproportionate share of certificates of performance. Future research should focus on how and when students are tracked into curricular paths in Georgia, why African-American males are

underrepresented among those taking the CP track and overrepresented among those receiving special education diplomas and certificates of performance.

Table 3.

Percent of Diplomas and Certificates of Performance Awarded to African-American Males Georgia Public High School Graduates, 1997-2001

Academic Year	Percent of Diplomas to African-American Males by Type of Diploma				Percent of Diplomas to African-American Males*	Percent of Certificates of Performance, With No Diploma, to African-American Males
	CP Diplomas	CP + Vocational Diplomas	Vocational Diplomas	Special Education Diplomas		
1997	11.2	7.1	15.2	34.2	14.5	25.7
1998	11.3	7.8	16.6	33.4	14.1	25.3
1999	12.0	8.8	19.1	34.0	14.3	25.9
2000	12.4	10.0	19.5	34.7	14.6	25.9
2001	11.7	10.6	19.9	37.2	14.7	25.9

Source: Georgia Department of Education, 2002. *General diplomas are not shown separately above, but they are included in the total percent.

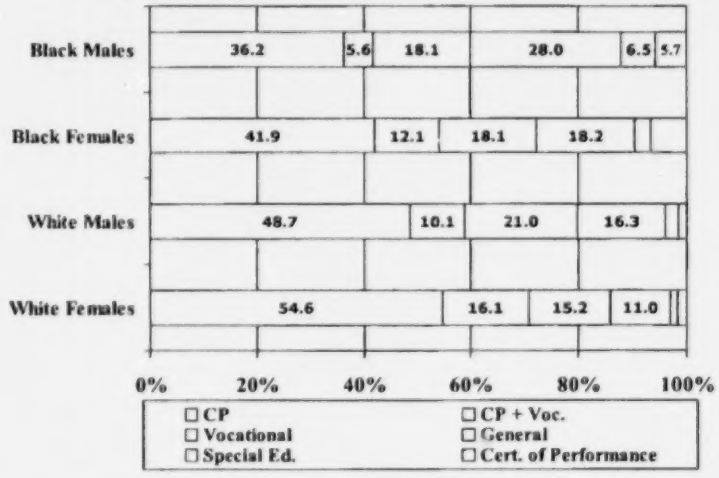
African-American males, when compared to other race and gender cohorts, are not as well prepared to enter college. The following two charts show the proportion of African-American males, African-American females, white males, and white females by type of diploma. This chart shows the end result of curricular tracking, but the number of graduates in each track is impacted significantly by the low high school completion rate among African-American males. What we do not know is the curricular track of those students who did not complete high school.

Chart 3 shows the proportion of each cohort who graduated in 1997 by diploma type; Chart 4 shows the same information for the 2001 graduates. The phase-out of the general diploma in 1997 resulted in a larger proportion of students in the selected cohorts who were placed in the CP track, CP plus vocational track, and vocational track by 2001. However, for African-American males, there was a significant shift in the proportion of vocational diplomas awarded, from 18 percent to 32 percent between 1997 and 2001.

Chart 3.

1997 Georgia Public High School Graduates

Percentage of Graduates
by Type of Diploma for Selected Race/Gender Cohorts

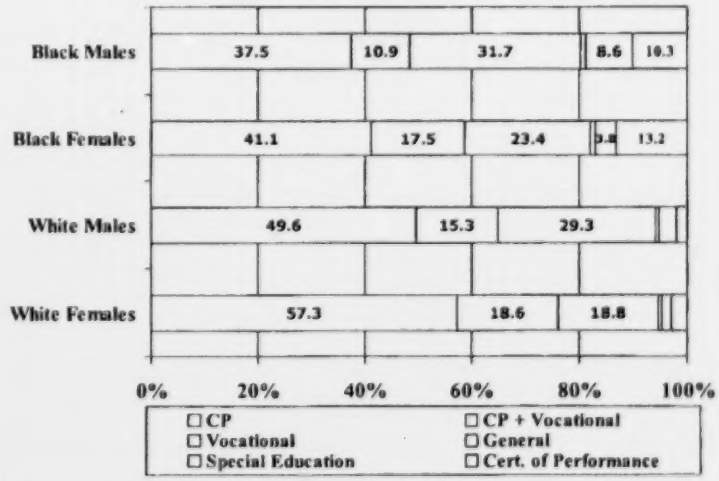


Source: Georgia Department of Education, 1997 Report on Graduates.

Chart 4.

2001 Georgia Public High School Graduates

Percentage of Graduates
by Type of Diploma for Selected Race/Gender Cohorts



Source: Georgia Department of Education, 2001 Report Card.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

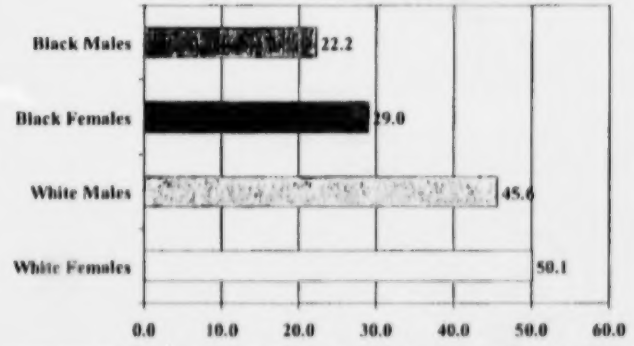
In summary, too few African-American males in ninth grade graduate from high school four years later (37 percent in 1993). And of that minority of students, less than half (42 percent) have the courses necessary for preparation for college. The effects of that lack of preparation are discussed below. What we do not know are the dynamics of the tracking process. Continuing research is needed in Georgia on both the role of individual student characteristics, such as motivation and aspiration for college, as well as the role of the schools, churches and other social groups. The work of the Matlock/Warner research consultants will help to inform the System about perceptions of the tracking process.

Enrollment in USG Colleges and Universities

In the next section, we will examine access to college in terms of enrollment in University System institutions. Chart 5 shows the percentage of the graduating high school class of 1997 who enrolled in University System institutions in Fall 1997. African-American males entered college at a rate of 22 percent. By contrast, one half of white female high school graduates entered USG colleges and universities that year, 46 percent of white males, and 29 percent of African-American females.

Chart 5.

1997 Georgia Public High School Graduates as a Proportion of Fall 1997 First-Time USG Freshmen
Selected Race and Gender Cohorts



Source: Georgia Department of Education, 2001 Report on Graduates. USG SIRS First Time Freshmen Enrollment Reports, September 2002.
Note that this chart does not track individual students into the USG; it compares two aggregate numbers for each cohort.

13

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Table 4.

Number of African-American Males

Year	Georgia HS Diplomas	First-Time USG Freshmen (Same-Year HS Graduates)
1997	8,534	2,007
1998	8,545	1,926
1999	8,775	2,035
2000	9,433	1,986
2001	9,549	1,987

The numbers of African-American males enrolling in USG institutions in the first fall after high school graduation have remained fairly stable over the last five years, as shown in Table 4. Even though the number of high school graduates increased slightly, the aggregate college-going rate has decreased slightly.

However, a very different picture of college-going rates emerges if completion of the college preparatory curriculum in high school is held constant. Rather than a 22 percent college-going rate for the 1997 cohort, the rate for African-American males is 53.1 percent, compared to a rate of 53.6 percent for African-American females, 77.7 percent for white males, and 70.8 for white females. Completion of the CP curriculum erases gender effects among African-Americans; however, the race effects remain. This suggests that there are non-academic factors affecting college going, both real and perceived.

Delayed Entry to College: Non-Traditional Enrollment

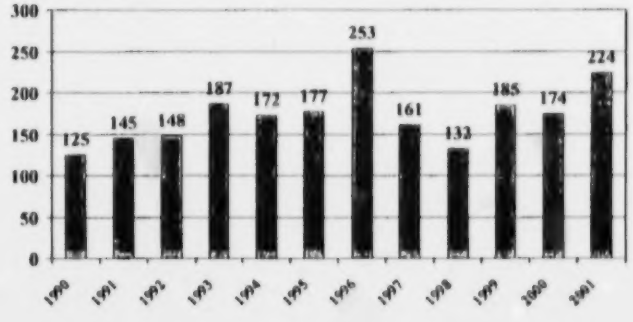
Few African-American males enroll in USG colleges and universities for the first time as "non-traditional" students.[14] Chart 6 tracks the number of non-traditional African-American males from 1990 to 2001. Although the numbers have fluctuated significantly over the period, the number of non-traditional freshmen is small.

Chart 6.

Delayed Entry into College

Number of USG African-American Males

First-Time Freshmen Aged 25 and Over



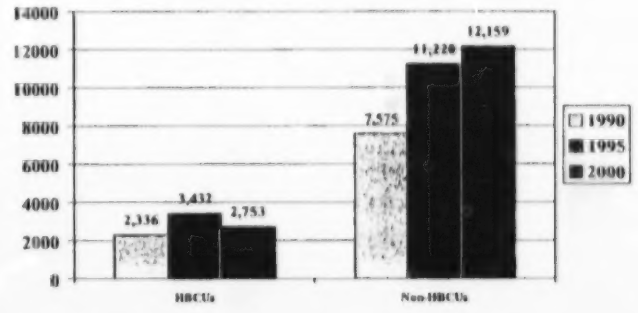
Source: SIRS, Office of Strategic Research & Analysis, University System of Georgia, 2002.

[14] "Non-traditional" is defined here according to Board of Regents policy as a student who has been out of high school for more than five years.

Where students enroll provides another picture of access. Over the last ten years, African-American students have shifted enrollment from USG HBCUs to non-HBCUs. In 1990, over 3.2 times as many African-American males enrolled in non-HBCUs as HBCUs, but by 2000, over 4.4 times as many African-American males enrolled in non-HBCUs.

Chart 7.

African-American Males in USG HBCUs & Non-HBCUs: 1990, 1995, and 2000

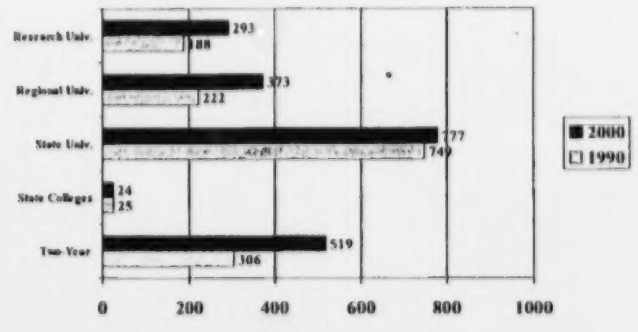


Source: SIRS, Office of Strategic Research & Analysis, University System of Georgia, 2002

Another aspect of access as choice is reflected in which sector African-American males enroll, as presented in Chart 8. Between 1990 and 2000, there has been an increase of 41 percent in the number of African-American males enrolling in two-year colleges. At research universities, the numbers of students enrolling are smaller, but there has been an increase of 36 percent overall,

Chart 8.

Number of African-American Males in USG Institutions by Sector: 1990 and 2000



Source: SIRS, Office of Strategic Research & Analysis, University System of Georgia, 2003

with most of the increase having occurred at one research university. The number of African-American males enrolling at regional universities increased by 41 percent. The largest number of African-American males enrolled at state universities, but that number has grown only modestly, by 4 percent from 1990 to 2000.

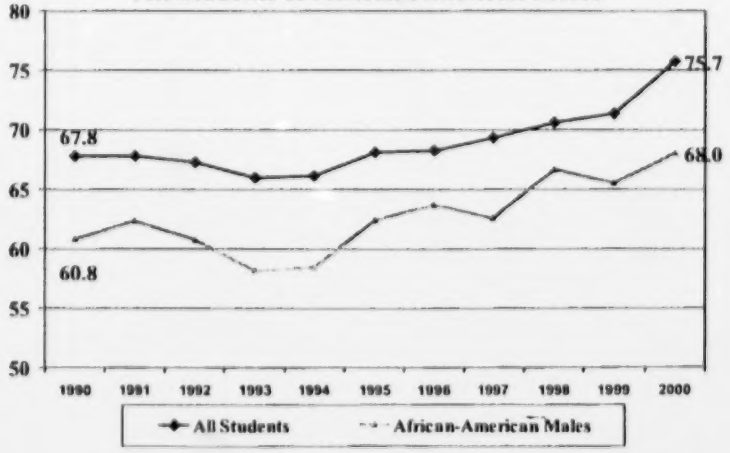
There are many additional components of enrollment that should be analyzed, such as delayed entry after one or two years out of high school, the number of transfers and pattern of transfer, and patterns of part-time and full-time enrollment, but those are beyond the scope of this introduction. Each USG institution should analyze the enrollment patterns of African-American males.

Retention Rates

Nationally, as reviewed above, access is viewed increasingly as participation and completion, rather than the possibility of enrollment. Given the larger number of African-American male freshmen who enroll in University System institutions without having completed the CP curriculum in high school, it would be expected that retention rates would lag those of other cohorts. Chart 9 provides first-year institution-specific retention rates for African-American males and all students from 1990 through 2000. The 1997 cohort that we tracked above had a retention rate of 63 percent. Chart 10 provides more detailed breakdowns of retention rates for the most recent cohort of first-time, full-time freshmen who entered college in 2001. African-American males were retained at a rate of 69 percent after one year, compared to 73 percent for African-American females, 76 percent for white females, and 73 percent for white males. The differences by gender and by race are minimal considering the significant differences in preparation for college.

Chart 9.

USG Institution-Specific First-Year Retention Rates
Fall to Fall, 1990-2000 First-Time/Full-Time Freshmen
All Students & African-American Males

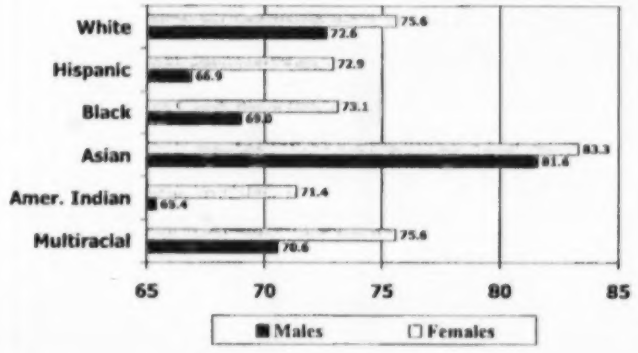


Source: USG SIRS, SRA, March 2003

Chart 10.

First-Year Retention Rates by Race & Gender

Fall 2001 Cohort of First-Time, Full-Time Freshmen



Source: USG SIRS; 2001 cohort of entering freshmen; institution-specific rates for first-time/full-time freshmen.

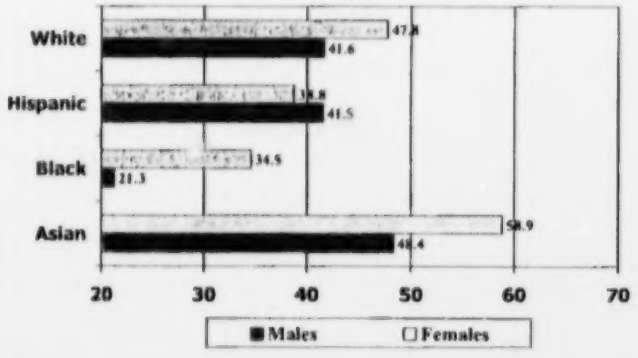
Graduation Rates

The relatively small differences in retention rates are exacerbated by the time of graduation six years later.

Chart 11.

Six-Year Baccalaureate Graduation Rates by Race & Gender

Fall 1996 Cohort of First-Time, Full-Time Freshmen



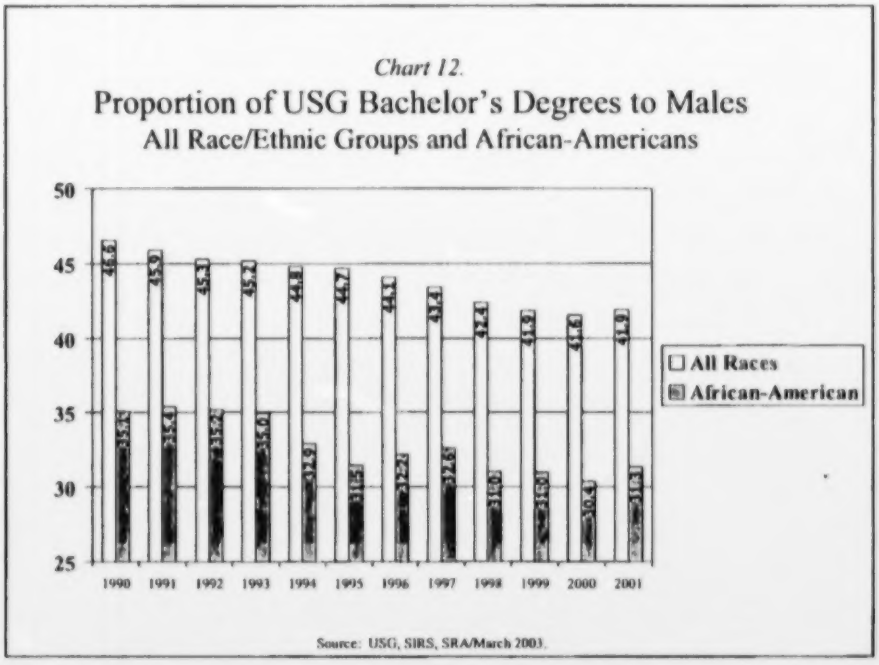
Source: USG SIRS; 1996 cohort of entering freshmen; institution-specific rates for first-time/full-time freshmen.

African-American males graduated with a bachelor's at a rate of 21 percent after six years, compared to 35 percent for African-American females, 47 percent for white females, and 42 percent for white males. The USG does not yet know enough of what happens in the intervening years.

Degrees Conferred

The number of bachelor's degrees conferred to African-American males has increased over the last ten years from 617 in 1991 to 1,183 in 2001, an increase of 92 percent. In comparison, the number of bachelor's degrees conferred to African-American females increased by 130 percent during the period, and there were 2.2 times as many bachelor's degrees conferred to African-American females as males in 2001.

Chart 12 shows the proportion of all USG bachelor's degrees awarded to males. In 2001, 42 percent of all bachelor's degrees were awarded to males, compared to 47 percent in 1990. Among African-Americans, 31 percent were awarded to males, compared to 35 percent in 1990.



Graduate and Professional Education

Given the number of bachelor's degree recipients, it should not be surprising that there are few African-American males enrolled in graduate and professional schools in the University System. However, the disparities between African-Americans and all students and between African-

American males and females are significant. In Fall 2002, of 28,987 students enrolled at the graduate level, 4,025 were African-American (13.9 percent), and of that number, 1,141 were male (28.3 percent). African-American male graduate students were disproportionately enrolled in state universities (5.7 percent of all graduate students at that level, compared to 3.4 percent at the research university level).

There were 3,555 students enrolled in First Professional programs in USG research universities in Fall 2002, in law, medicine, veterinary medicine, dentistry, or pharmacy. Of that number, 254 (7.1 percent) were African-American, and 86 (33.9 percent of African-Americans) were male.

In FY2002, there were 4,420 Masters degrees conferred with 265 (6.0 percent) to African-American males; 553 Education Specialist degrees with 20 (3.6 percent) to African-American males; 404 doctorates with 14 (3.5 percent) to African-American males; and 387 First Professional degrees with 11 (2.8 percent) to African-American males. Of those 11, 9 were in law, 1 in medicine, and 1 in pharmacy. The same educational process that produced one African-American male medical doctor from the USG produced 86 white male doctors, 36 white female doctors, and 27 African-American female doctors.

Other Outcomes: Juvenile Justice and the Prison System

Proportionately more African-American males are involved with the juvenile justice system, jails, and prisons than other groups, generally prohibiting the continuation of education. At the very least, involvement with the justice system means time out along the path to pursue a high school diploma or postsecondary education. For many young males, it changes life in an irretrievable way.

It is difficult to get age-specific data on the jail and prison populations, but nevertheless, the number of African-American males in prison (of all ages) is often juxtaposed with the number of African-American males in college (generally from a more restricted age group). Even if the resulting comparisons are somewhat overstated, the numbers are staggering. For this reason, the issue is reviewed here with information about what we know in Georgia. Again, this information should be used as the starting point, along with the Matlock/Warner consultants' report and the reports of the other subcommittees, for policy discussion and potential change.

The pipeline to jails and prisons usually begins with juvenile detention. Nationally, there are significant disparities in the number of juveniles who are confined. In 1997-98, African-American youth were 15 percent of the total population of youth, but they represented 26 percent of the youth arrested, 31 percent of the youth sent to juvenile court, and 44 percent of those detained.[15] (Note that the data are not broken down by gender.)

[15] See Eleanor Hinton Hoytt, Vincent Schiraldi, Brenda V. Smith, and Jason Ziedenberg, Pathways to Juvenile Detention Reform: Reducing Racial Disparities in Juvenile Detention. Baltimore, Maryland: The Annie E. Casey Foundation, not dated (but post 2000). http://www.aecf.org/publications/pdfs/pathways8.pdf.

In 1996, Thomas Mortensen compared state data on the adult population in local jails and state and federal prisons to the number of students enrolled in higher education.[16] He focused on the changes between 1980 and 1994 (the most recent data available in 1996). During that period six African-American males were added to the jail and prison population for every African-American male added to the higher education system. States varied considerably in whether more males were in prison or in college. For example, North Carolina had substantially more African-American males enrolled in college than were incarcerated, but Florida's college population of African-American males was only 67 percent the size of its incarcerated population of African-American males.

In Georgia, 17,713 African-American males were state prisoners with another 8,175 in jails (for a total of 29,508). In the same year, there were 27,832 African-American males enrolled in college in Georgia. There were 1,676 more inmates than students, with a student/prisoner ratio of .94. Thirty-one states enrolled more students in college than were incarcerated. Georgia ranks 42nd in the number of college students minus prisoners (-1,676).

In 1993, Georgia ranked third among all states in the proportion of the adult population under correctional supervision (4.3 percent), following the District of Colombia (6.3 percent) and Texas (4.8 percent). The comparable percentage for the United States as a whole was 2.6.

The Justice Policy Institute postulate that states can directly affect the educational outcomes for African-American males through the choices they make in budgeting.[17] They found that between 1985 and 2000 state and local governments increased spending on prisons at the same time they decreased spending on higher education. During this period, spending on state corrections grew at six times the rate of higher education in part as a reflection of public concerns about crime. For Georgia, they report that state spending on higher education increased from $1,003 to $1,933 million between 1986 and 2000 (93 percent), and spending on corrections increased from $327 to $1,091 million in adjusted dollars (233.6 percent).

They project the likelihood that an African-American male born in the 1990s will have a 1 in 4 chance of being incarcerated in a state or federal prison. The chances are much greater in some locations. For example, in Washington, DC and Baltimore, MD, more than one-half of African-American male youth are under criminal justice control, to include jails, prison, parole, or probation. Using more recent data than Mortensen's article (above), they found that in 2000 almost one-third more African-American males were in jail or prison than enrolled in higher education (791,600 African-American males in prison, compared to 603,032 enrolled in college). Particularly disturbing is the fact that the gap between incarceration and college enrollment is growing rather than shrinking.

---

[16] Thomas Mortensen, "Black Males in College or Behind Bars in the United States, 1980 to 1994," *Postsecondary Education Opportunity*, Number 45, March 1996. Data on the number of incarcerated adults were obtained from the Bureau of Justice Statistics, and data on postsecondary education enrollment were from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, IPEDS).

[17] Justice Policy Institute, Washington, DC. "Cellblocks of Classrooms?: The Funding of Higher Education and Corrections and Its Impact on African-American Men." http://www.justicepolicy.org/coc1/corc.htm.

For Georgia, the Justice Policy Institute estimated that there were 27,700 African-American males in jail or prison in 2000, compared to 29,611 enrolled in higher education in the state in 1999. While perhaps the trend compares somewhat better than that in the nation, between 1980 and 2000, Georgia added 20,800 new African-American male prisoners and 15,203 college students. The number of prisoners (20,800) does not include African-American males in jails.

In short, the effects of sentencing and incarceration on African-American males, as well as the idea of taking post-secondary education into the jails and prisons, should be investigated for Georgia.

Recommendations:
The research subcommittee endorses the idea that research must drive policy discussion on African-American males. The recommendations embedded above are not repeated here. The following recommendations are offered for action.

- The University System of Georgia should monitor indicators of African-American male success in enrolling in University System institutions, in retention, and graduation.

- The USG should work with other state agencies to routinely examine where the educational pipeline breaks down. The Educational Coordinating Council should request research on closing the gap.

    - Research should focus on the educational trajectory from elementary school onward concerning African-American Males.

    - Research should focus on the disproportionate placement of African-American Males in Special Education classes.

    - The USG should partner in completing research on the reasons black males may be more likely to be retained (repeat) the 9th grade as compared to other students.

- USG institutions should investigate campus climate and how it is perceived by African-American males. The research should drive policy and procedural changes.

- The Task Force should endorse a research agenda for the next two years.

- The University System of Georgia should partner with the Mentoring Program and the Wimberly Project of the 100 Black Men of America, Inc. to cultivate best practice models throughout the system addressing the concerns of African-American males.

- The USG should determine how the BOR can best make contact with students before they reach the critical level, as early as the 6th grade.

CMH—April 7, 2003

U.S. Department of Education
Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI)
National Library of Education (NLE)
Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)

NOTICE

Reproduction Basis

X	This document is covered by a signed "Reproduction Release (Blanket)" form (on file within the ERIC system), encompassing all or classes of documents from its source organization and, therefore, does not require a "Specific Document" Release form.
	This document is Federally-funded, or carries its own permission to reproduce, or is otherwise in the public domain and, therefore, may be reproduced by ERIC without a signed Reproduction Release form (either "Specific Document" or "Blanket").